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## Comparison of text-messaging to voice telephone interviews for active surveillance of adverse events following immunisation

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30 **Abstract**

31 **Objectives:** In 2013, the Follow-up and Active Surveillance of Trivalent Influenza Vaccine in  
32 Mums (FASTMum) program began using short message service (SMS) to collect adverse  
33 event information in pregnant women who recently received trivalent influenza vaccine (TIV).  
34 This study was designed to compare data collected via SMS and telephone for the purposes  
35 of monitoring vaccine safety.

36 **Methods:** 344 women who received TIV were randomly assigned to a telephone interview  
37 group. They were telephoned seven days post-vaccination and administered a standard  
38 survey soliciting any adverse events following immunisation (AEFI) they experienced. They  
39 were matched by brand of vaccine, age group, and residence to 344 women who were sent  
40 a SMS seven days post-vaccination. The SMS solicited similar information. AEFI reported by  
41 SMS and telephone interview were compared by calculating risk ratios.

42 **Results:** Response rate was higher to SMS compared to telephone interview (90.1% vs.  
43 63.9%). Women who were surveyed by SMS were significantly less likely to report an AEFI  
44 compared to women who were surveyed by telephone (RR: 0.41; 95% CI: 0.29-0.59). The  
45 greatest discrepancies between SMS and telephone interview were for self-reported  
46 injection site reactions (3.1% vs. 16.8%) and unsolicited (or “other”) events (11.4% vs.  
47 4.1%). Data collected by SMS was significantly timelier.

48 **Conclusions:** Data collection by SMS results in significantly improved response rates and  
49 timeliness of vaccine safety data. Systems which incorporate SMS could be used to more  
50 rapidly detect safety signals and promote more rapid public health response to vaccine  
51 quality issues.

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56 **Keywords:** vaccination; public health surveillance; text messaging; influenza vaccine

## 57 **1. Introduction**

58 Vaccine safety programs are fundamental for promoting vaccine uptake in the community,  
59 since any perceived vaccine safety issue can undermine confidence in vaccination [1].  
60 Misperceptions of vaccine safety are a common contributor to low immunisation rates [2-6].  
61 For example, in Western Australia an unexpected spike in adverse events following trivalent  
62 influenza vaccination in children in 2010 resulted in an 84% reduction in influenza vaccine  
63 uptake in young children [7, 8]. This example serves as a reminder of the necessity of  
64 vigilant vaccine safety programs and the importance of rapid signal response. Further,  
65 influenza vaccines continually change in antigenic composition to accommodate shifting  
66 strains, but are not considered new vaccines and do not undergo the same efficacy and  
67 safety studies as new vaccines [9]. Timely collection of vaccine safety data is necessary in  
68 order to identify early warning signals and ensure vaccine quality.

69

70 Some vaccine safety surveillance programs incorporate short message service (SMS)  
71 communication to monitor adverse events following immunisation (AEFI) details in near real-  
72 time [10-13]. While such methods offer rapid data collection and dissemination of results, to  
73 date, no study has investigated the potential differences between SMS and telephone  
74 interview data collection methods. This study compares SMS with telephone interviews for  
75 the purpose of performing vaccine safety surveillance in terms of a) response rate; b)  
76 adverse events reported; and c) the timeliness of obtaining data.

77

## 78 **2. Methods**

79 The Follow-up and Active Surveillance of Trivalent influenza vaccine in Mums (FASTMum)  
80 program has monitored the safety of pregnant women who receive inactivated TIV in Western  
81 Australia since 2012 [14]. Historically, data collection has relied on telephone interviews of  
82 vaccinated pregnant women; however, in 2013, SMS was introduced as a method of collecting  
83 AEFI information [11]. In 2014, a subset of 344 women were followed up by telephone

84 interview for comparison purposes. All follow-up occurred between 16 March and 22 May  
85 2014.

86

## 87 **2.1 Sample selection**

88 In Western Australia, immunisation providers report details of antenatal influenza  
89 immunisations to the Western Australia Department of Health (WA Health) by submitting  
90 immunisation reports which include the vaccination date, vaccine brand and batch number,  
91 and mobile phone number of the vaccinee [11]. At the time of vaccination, women are asked  
92 to indicate on these reports whether they give permission to be contacted by telephone or  
93 SMS by WA Health for the purposes of monitoring vaccine safety [11]. During the study time  
94 period, 2,011 women were reported to WA Health as receiving TIV and consented to follow-  
95 up. A random sample of women (n=344) was selected to receive a telephone interview seven  
96 days post-vaccination using a random number generator. The remaining 1,667 women were  
97 followed up by SMS seven days post-vaccination. Of these 1,667 women, 344 were  
98 individually matched by brand of TIV received, age group (18-29 years, 30-39 years, or 40-45  
99 years), and residence (metropolitan or rural) to a sample of women who received the same  
100 questions via SMS. The sample size was powered to detect a  $\pm 4\%$  difference between groups  
101 at  $\beta = .80$ .

102

## 103 **2.2 Data collection**

104 For participants in the SMS-group, a text message was sent seven days following  
105 vaccination asking:

106 "In the week since your vaccination, did you experience any reaction, fever, or  
107 illness? Please reply Y or N."

108 Women who did not reply were sent a second message within 24 hours with the same text.

109 Women who replied "yes" to either message were sent an additional SMS asking them to  
110 complete a five minute survey on their mobile phone. Women who did not complete the  
111 survey were telephoned to ask about details related to their reaction. The survey asked if

112 they had experienced any of the following: fever, headache, fatigue, rash, swelling, redness,  
113 or pain at the injection site, rigors, or convulsions. Women could make multiple selections  
114 and were permitted to record additional events in a free text field. At the end of the survey,  
115 women were asked if they had visited any doctor, medical centre, after hours clinic, or  
116 emergency department regarding their reaction.

117

118 For participants in the telephone-group, a research nurse telephoned the mobile phone of  
119 the participant seven days post-vaccination. No SMS messages were sent to women in this  
120 group, and all questions in the telephone interview were identical to those of the mobile  
121 phone survey. Women were asked by telephone whether they experienced any reaction and  
122 women who replied affirmatively were asked about details related to the reaction. Women  
123 who did not respond to telephone interview were telephoned again 24 hours later, until a  
124 maximum of three contact attempts were made.

125

## 126 **2.4 Outcomes measured**

127 We were interested in comparing the two methods of collecting vaccine safety data in terms  
128 of response rate, reactions reported, and timeliness of the data collection. We defined  
129 'response rate' as the proportion of participants who returned a text message in the SMS-  
130 group or answered a telephone call in the telephone-group. The proportion of women who  
131 experienced each reaction included on the surveys was calculated and compared between  
132 groups. We also compared response rate to SMS and telephone interview by  
133 sociodemographic characteristics. We calculated the time required to collect completed  
134 adverse event information for both data collection methods.

135

## 136 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

137 Data were analysed using SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute Inc, Sydney, NSW, Australia).  
138 Response rates to SMS and telephone interview were compared by sociodemographic  
139 subgroups using Cochran Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) chi square tests. The response rates to



140 SMS versus telephone interview were compared overall and by sociodemographic factors by  
141 calculating risk ratios ( $\alpha=.05$ ). Risk ratios were also used to compare the number of women  
142 who reported each event by SMS and telephone interview. Independent sample t-tests were  
143 used to compare the mean time (in days) required to collect complete AEFI data by SMS  
144 and telephone interview.

145

### 146 **3 Results**

147 A total of 688 women who had received trivalent influenza vaccine between 9 March and 15  
148 May 2014 were followed up: 344 by SMS and 344 by telephone interview (Figure 1). The  
149 majority of women resided in the metropolitan area (84.6%), were non-Aboriginal (95.8%),  
150 were in their second or third trimester of pregnancy (80.0%), were between 30 and 45 years  
151 of age (62.2%) and were in the top 60% of socioeconomic levels (86.1%). Women  
152 commonly received either Vaxigrip® (40.7%) or Fluvax® (49.1%); 8.3% received Fluarix®,  
153 and 1.9% received other brands. There were no demographic or vaccination differences  
154 identified between SMS and telephone groups ( $p>0.05$ ).

155

#### 156 **3.1 Response Rate**

157 A total of 310 (90.1%) of women replied to SMS (Figure 1). Response to SMS was lower in  
158 Aboriginal women compared to non-Aboriginal women (66.7% vs. 92.2%; CMH=9.22,  
159  $p<0.01$ ). No difference was observed in response to SMS by residence, trimester of  
160 pregnancy, socioeconomic status, or age group ( $p<0.05$ ). A total of 220 (66.7%) of women  
161 responded to telephone interview. Response to telephone was significantly lower in women  
162 who resided outside the metropolitan area compared to those within the metropolitan area  
163 (78.5% vs. 88.3%; CMH: 7.06,  $p<0.01$ ). No difference was observed in response to  
164 telephone interview by Aboriginal status, trimester of pregnancy, socioeconomic status, or  
165 age group ( $p>0.05$ ).

166

167 Overall, response rate was significantly higher with SMS than telephone interviews (90.1%  
168 vs 66.7%,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 1). Women were 40% more likely to reply to SMS compared to  
169 telephone interview (RR: 1.41, 95% CI: 1.29-1.54). This association was consistent across  
170 sociodemographic groups, with the exception of Aboriginal women, women aged 40-45  
171 years and women in the second quintile of socioeconomic status ( $p > 0.05$ ).

172

173 On average, 1.4 telephone calls were required to complete a telephone interview with one  
174 woman; 146 (66.4%) of women replied to the first telephone call. The majority of women who  
175 replied to SMS, replied to the first message ( $n = 277$ , 89.3%). Of the 38 women who replied to  
176 the SMS indicating they had experienced an AEFI, 23 (60.5%) women provided information  
177 related to the event: 10 (43.5%) by mobile phone survey and 13 (56.5%) had to be  
178 telephoned. The remaining 15 women who indicated they experienced a reaction could not  
179 be reached by either telephone interview or SMS.

180

### 181 **3.2 Events reported**

182 Women in the SMS-group were 59% less likely to report an AEFI compared to women in the  
183 telephone-group (RR 0.41; 95% CI 0.29-0.59) (Table 2). When we compared the events  
184 reported by women who experienced an AEFI, women in the SMS-group were 81% less  
185 likely (RR 0.18, 95% CI 0.09-0.37) to report a local reaction and 64% less likely (RR: 0.36,  
186 95% CI 0.05-0.70) to report events not included in the survey (Table 2). Women were just as  
187 likely to report fever, headache, fatigue, vomiting, rash, or rigors by SMS or telephone, and  
188 no women reported convulsions. Women were just as likely to report having sought medical  
189 care for their AEFI by SMS and telephone (RR: 0.45; 95% CI: 0.11-1.85).

190

### 191 **3.3 Timeliness of data**

192 Collection of AEFI details from SMS participants required significantly less time than  
193 telephone participants (Figure 2); 95.6% of women in the SMS-group reported complete  
194 AEFI details within 24 hours of follow-up, compared to 16.6% of women in the telephone-

195 group. On average, complete AEFI information was obtained from women in the SMS-group  
196 within 2.4 hours (95% CI: 2.4-4.8 hours) of follow-up, whereas information was obtained  
197 from women in the telephone-group within 2.7 days (95% CI: 2.5-3.0 days)( $t: 20.3, p<0.01$ ).  
198 The time required to collect information was similar for women who experienced a reaction  
199 as those who did not experience a reaction (1.6 days vs 1.3 days,  $t: -1.03, p=0.30$ ).

200

#### 201 **4 Discussion**

202 To our knowledge, this is the first study specifically designed to directly compare SMS with  
203 telephone interview for the purpose of AEFI surveillance. Based on our results, an SMS-  
204 based adverse event monitoring program would detect a similar rate of medically-attended  
205 adverse events as a telephone-based system. Data collection by SMS was significantly  
206 more rapid and associated with improved response rates over telephone interviews. These  
207 results indicate SMS could be used to implement an AEFI monitoring program with the  
208 capability for rapid response to safety signals.

209

210 Previous observational studies support our findings, in that response to SMS often exceeds  
211 80% [10, 11] and adverse event information can vary when collected by SMS and telephone  
212 interview, which is consistent with previous observational studies [11]. Internationally, there  
213 is growing evidence supporting the feasibility of SMS as a method of data collection. In the  
214 United States, researchers successfully used SMS to monitor the reactogenicity of trivalent  
215 influenza vaccine in children over a seven day period [15]. In Sweden, Bexelius et al. [16]  
216 compared SMS to standardised telephone interviews for administering three survey  
217 questions related to influenza and influenza vaccination. Vaccination data collected by SMS  
218 was statistically similar to data collected by telephone interview. A number of other public  
219 health systems have further demonstrated the utility of SMS for data collection, including  
220 collection of immunisation status [16], asthma symptoms [17], irritable bowel syndrome  
221 symptoms [18], Ebolavirus symptoms [19], and pain outcomes [20].

222

223 Our results indicate that SMS can be used as a valuable tool for signal detection; however,  
224 some of our findings suggest there are limitations of SMS for AEFI monitoring. First,  
225 although 90% of women replied to the initial SMS, 56.5% of women who reported an AEFI  
226 via SMS did not respond to the follow-up SMS and had to be telephoned to collect details of  
227 the event. These results indicate SMS may not be a complete solution to AEFI information  
228 collection. Second, there were some distinct differences in the events reported by SMS  
229 compared to telephone. Women surveyed by telephone were more likely to report any  
230 adverse event, which can largely be attributed to their increased reporting of injection site  
231 reactions. Although not designed to compare the different methods of AEFI data collection, a  
232 similar previous investigation found that women followed up by telephone interview were four  
233 times as likely to report a local reaction and nearly twice as likely to report a systemic  
234 reaction [11], similar to our results. These findings may suggest that SMS is not suitable for  
235 determining an accurate proportion of vaccinees who experience mild, common events, but  
236 would instead be suited for monitoring for changes in the safety profile of a vaccine.  
237 Regardless of these shortfalls, SMS would detect a safety signal more rapidly compared to  
238 telephone interviews.

239

240 While this study provides valuable information which can be used to improve vaccine safety  
241 monitoring programs, there were several limitations to our investigation. Due to the  
242 population of the routine vaccine safety monitoring program in Western Australia, our sample  
243 was restricted to pregnant females and our results may not necessarily apply to other  
244 demographic groups. The events reported in this study were self-reported and had not been  
245 verified by a health professional. Discrepancies between the rates of AEFI reported by SMS  
246 and by telephone interview may be due to response bias. It is plausible that the method of  
247 inquiry affected the probability for a vaccinee to recall and report an AEFI. Additional  
248 research where reported AEFI are medically verified could provide further information on the  
249 use of SMS for data collection. Finally, unlike the SMS group, only 17% of the telephone  
250 group were successfully contacted at seven days post-vaccination. As a result, the variation

251 in time required to follow-up by telephone compared to SMS may have biased our results.  
252 However, among the women who were successfully contacted by telephone within seven  
253 days, 37% reported a reaction, similar to the proportion of all women who were followed up  
254 by telephone interview. This indicates that variation in follow-up time is unlikely to be the  
255 reason for the differences in AEFI observed in our study.

256

#### 257 **4.1 Conclusions**

258 We compared the use of SMS and telephone interviews for the purposes of collecting AEFI  
259 information. Our results show that SMS can be used to improve existing vaccine safety  
260 surveillance systems, with certain caveats. Evaluations such as ours are important for  
261 informing public health initiatives, considering the current interest in transitioning surveillance  
262 systems to mobile phone technology [10-12, 18, 19]. Systems which incorporate SMS as a  
263 method of data collection have the potential to more rapidly detect a safety signals and  
264 facilitate quick response to identified vaccine quality issues and warrant further exploration.

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**Figure 1 title:**

Figure 1. Adverse event following influenza immunisation monitoring by SMS and telephone – Western Australia, Australia, March-May, 2014.

**Figure 1 footnotes:**

SMS, short message service

**Figure 2 title:**

Figure 2. Number of follow-up days, by method of adverse event reporting – Western Australia, Australia, March – May, 2014.

**Figure 2 footnotes:**

SMS, short message service

AEFI, adverse event following immunisation



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